

Lempel Ziv Computation In Small Space (LZ-CISS)

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Abstract. For both the Lempel Ziv 77- and 78-factorization we propose algorithms generating the respective factorization using $(1 + \epsilon)n \lg n + \mathcal{O}(n)$ bits (for any positive constant $\epsilon \leq 1$) working space (including the space for the output) for any text of size n over an integer alphabet in $\mathcal{O}(n/\epsilon^2)$ time.

1 Introduction

It is difficult to find any practical scenario in computer science for which one could not reason about compression. Although common focus lies on compression of data on disc storage, for some usages, squeezing transient memory is also practically beneficial. For instance, the zram module of modern Linux kernels [35] compresses blocks of the main memory in order to prevent the system from running out of working memory. Compressing RAM is sometimes more preferable than storing transient data on secondary storage (e.g., in a swap file), as the latter poses a more severe performance loss. Another example are websites that usually transferred as “gzipped” data by hosting servers [34]. A server may cache generated webpages in a compressed form in RAM for performance benefits. To sum up, a common task of these scenarios is the compression and maintenance of data in main memory in order to provide a space-economical, fast access.

Central in many compression algorithms are the LZ77 [37] or LZ78 [38] factorizations. Both techniques were invented in the late 70’s and set a milestone in the field of data compression. Since main memory sizes of ordinary computers do not scale as fast as the growth of datasets, insufficient memory is a well-aware problem; both huge mainframes with massive datasets and tiny embedded systems are valid examples for which a simple compressor may end up depleting all RAM. Besides, they have also been found to be a valuable tool for detecting various kinds of regularities in strings [4, 6, 14, 21–23, 26], for indexing [7, 10, 11, 18, 19, 31] and for analyzing strings [5, 24, 25].

Large datasets pose a challenge to the main memory budget. For a solution, one either has to think about algorithm engineering in external memory, or about how to slim down memory consumption during computation in RAM. Wrt. the latter, we propose an approach that uses $(1 + \epsilon)n \lg n + \mathcal{O}(n)$ bits (for any positive constant $\epsilon \leq 1$) working space (including the space for the output) while sustaining linear time computation. Our approach differs from the more recent algorithms (see below), as it uses a succinct suffix tree representation.

Related Work. While there are naive algorithms that take $\mathcal{O}(1)$ working space with quadratic running time (for both LZ77 and LZ78), linear time algorithms with very restricted space emerged only in recent years.

Wrt. LZ77, the bound of $3n \lg n$ bits set by [12] was very soon lowered to $2n \lg n$ by [16]. For small alphabet size σ , the upper bound of $n \lg n + \mathcal{O}(\sigma \lg n)$ bits by [13] is also very compelling. Their common idea is the usage of previous- and/or next-smaller-value-queries [33]. While the approach of Kärkkäinen et al. [16] stores SA and NSV completely in two arrays, Goto et al. [13] can cope

with a single array whose length depends on the alphabet size. In [20], a practical variant having the worst case performance guarantees of $(1 + \epsilon)n \lg n + n + \mathcal{O}(\sigma \lg n)$ bits of working space and $\mathcal{O}(n \lg \sigma / \epsilon^2)$ time was proposed.

Wrt. LZ78, by using a naive trie implementation, the factorization is computable with $\mathcal{O}(z \lg z)$ bits space and $\mathcal{O}(n \lg \sigma)$ overall running time, where z is the size of LZ78 factorization. More sophisticated trie implementations [9] improve this to $\mathcal{O}(n + z \lg^2 \lg \sigma / \lg \lg \lg \sigma)$ time using the same space.

Jansson et al. [15] proposed a compressed dynamic trie based on word packing, and showed an application to LZ78 trie construction that runs in $\mathcal{O}(n(\lg \sigma + \lg \lg_\sigma n) / \lg_\sigma n)$ bits of working space and $\mathcal{O}(n \lg^2 \lg n / (\lg_\sigma n \lg \lg \lg n))$ time. When $\lg \sigma = o(\lg n \lg \lg \lg n / \lg^2 \lg n)$, their algorithm runs even in sub-linear time, but in the worst case it is super-linear. For an integer alphabet a linear time algorithm was recently proposed in [30], which utilizes the fact that LZ78 trie is superimposed on the suffix tree of a string. Although their algorithm works in $\mathcal{O}(n \lg n)$ bits of space, they did not care about the constant factor, and the use of the (complicated) dynamic marked ancestor queries [1] seems to prevent them from achieving a small constant factor.

2 Preliminaries

Let Σ denote an integer alphabet of size $\sigma = |\Sigma| = n^{\mathcal{O}(1)}$. An element w in Σ^* is called a **string**, and $|w|$ denotes its length. The empty string of length 0 is called ε . For any $1 \leq i \leq |w|$, $w[i]$ denotes the i -th character of w . When w is represented by the concatenation of $x, y, z \in \Sigma^*$, i.e., $w = xyz$, then x , y and z are called a **prefix**, **substring** and **suffix** of w , respectively. In particular, a suffix starting at position i of w is called the **i -th suffix** of w . For any $1 \leq j \leq |w|$, let $S_j(w)$ denote the set of substrings of w that start strictly before j .

In the rest of this paper, we take a string T of length $n > 0$, which is subject to LZ77 or LZ78 factorization. For convenience, let $T[n]$ be a special character that appears nowhere else in T , so that no suffix of T is a prefix of another suffix of T . Our computational model is the word RAM model with word size $\Omega(\lg n)$. Further, we assume that T is read-only; accessing a word costs $\mathcal{O}(1)$ time (e.g., T is stored in RAM using $n \lg \sigma$ bits).

The **suffix trie** of T is the trie of all suffixes of T . The **suffix tree** of T , denoted by ST , is the tree obtained by compacting the suffix trie of T . ST has n leaves and at most n internal nodes. We denote by V the nodes and by E the edges of ST . For any edge $e \in E$, the string stored in e is denoted by $c(e)$ and called the **label** of e . Further, the **string depth** of a node $v \in V$ is defined as the length of the concatenation of all edge labels on the path from the root to v . The leaf corresponding to the i -th suffix is labeled with i . SA and ISA denote the suffix array and the inverse suffix array of T , respectively [27]. For any $1 \leq i \leq n$, $\text{SA}[i]$ is identical to the label of the **lexicographically** i -th leaf in ST . LCP and RMQ are abbreviations for *longest common prefix* and *range minimum query*, respectively. LCP is a DS (data structure) on SA such that $\text{LCP}[i]$ is the LCP of the **lexicographically** i -th smallest suffix with its lexicographic predecessor for $i = 2, \dots, n$.

For any bit vector B with length $|B|$, $B.\text{rank}_1(i)$ counts the number of ‘1’-bits in $B[1..i]$, and $B.\text{select}_1(i)$ gives the position of the i -th ‘1’ in B . Given B , a DS that uses additional $o(|B|)$ bits of space and supports any rank/select query on B in constant time can be built in $\mathcal{O}(|B|)$ time [29].

As a running example, we take the string $T = \text{aaabaabaaabaa\$}$. Since both algorithms for LZ77 and LZ78 are based on the suffix tree, we depict the suffix tree of this example string in Fig. 1.

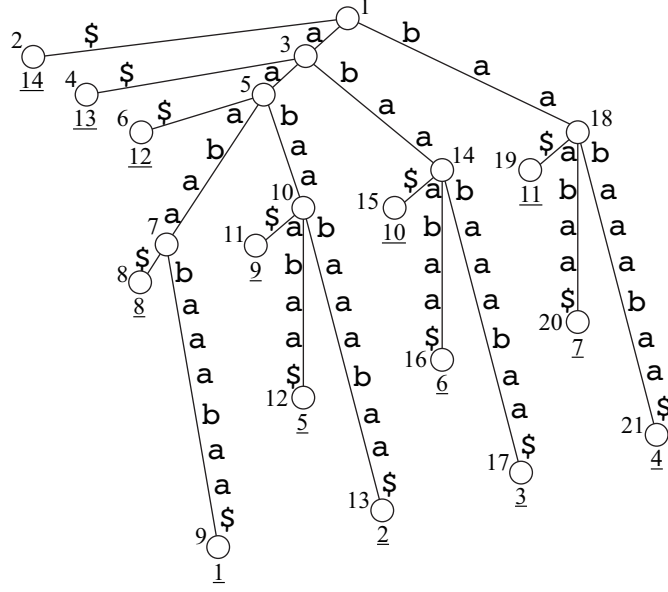


Fig. 1. The suffix tree of $T = \text{aaabaabaaabaa}\$$. The leaf labels are displayed by the underlined numbers. The other numbers show the pre-order of the nodes.

2.1 Lempel Ziv Factorization

A **factorization** partitions T into z substrings $T = f_1 \cdots f_z$. These substrings are called **factors**. In particular, we have:

Definition 1. A factorization $f_1 \cdots f_z = T$ is called the **LZ77 factorization** of T iff $f_x = \text{argmax}_{S \in S_j(T) \cup \Sigma} |S|$ for all $1 \leq x \leq z$ with $j = |f_1 \cdots f_{x-1}| + 1$.

The classic LZ77 factorization adds an additional **fresh character** to the referencing factors such that the following definition holds:

Definition 2. A factorization $f_1 \cdots f_z = T$ is called the **classic LZ77 factorization** of T iff f_x is the shortest prefix of $f_x \cdots f_z$ that occurs exactly once in $f_1 \cdots f_x$.

Definition 3. A factorization $f_1 \cdots f_z = T$ is called the **LZ78 factorization** of T iff $f_x = f'_x \cdot c$ with $f'_x = \text{argmax}_{S \in \{f_y : y < x\} \cup \{\varepsilon\}} |S|$ and $c \in \Sigma$ for all $1 \leq x \leq z$.

We identify factors by text positions, i.e., we call a text position j the **factor position** of f_x ($1 \leq x \leq z$) iff factor f_x starts at position j . A factor f_x may refer to either (LZ77) a previous text position j (called f_x 's **referred position**), or (LZ78) to a previous factor f_y (called f_x 's **referred factor**—in this case y is also called the **referred index** of f_x). If there is no suitable reference found for a given factor f_x with factor position j , then f_x consists of just the single letter $T[j]$. We call such a factor a **free letter**. The other factors are called **referencing factors**.

Our final data structures allow us to access arbitrary factors (factor position and referred position (LZ77)/referred index (LZ78)) in constant time.

2.2 Data Structures

Common to both our algorithms is the construction of a succinct ST representation. It consists of SA with $n \lg n$ bits, LCP with $2n + o(n)$ bits, and a $2|V| + o(|V|)$ -bit representation of the topology of ST, for which we choose the DFUDS [3] representation. The latter is denoted by SucST. We make use of several construction algorithms from the literature:

- SA can be constructed in $\mathcal{O}(n/\epsilon^2)$ time and $(1 + \epsilon)n \lg n$ bits of space, including the space for SA itself [17].
- Given SA, LCP can be computed in $\mathcal{O}(n)$ time with no extra space [36]. Note that LCP can only answer $\text{LCP}[i]$ in constant time if $\text{SA}[i]$ is also available. This is an important remark, because we will discard at several occasions SA in order to free space, and this discarding causes additional difficulties.
- Given both SA and LCP, a space economical construction of SucST was discussed in [33, Alg. 1]. The authors showed that the DFUDS representation of ST can be built in $\mathcal{O}(n)$ time with $n + o(n)$ bits of working space.

We identify a node $v \in V$ with its pre-order number, which is also the order in which the opening parentheses occur in the DFUDS representation. So we implicitly identify every node $v \in V$ with its pre-order number (enumerated by $1, \dots, |V|$).

Since our ST is static, we can perform various operations on the tree topology in constant time (see, e.g., [32, 33]). Among them, we especially use the following operations (for any $v \in V$ and $i \in \mathbb{N}$): **parent**(v) returns the parent of v ; and **level_anc**(v, i) returns the i -th ancestor of v . By building the *min-max tree* [32] on the DFUDS of ST in $\mathcal{O}(n)$ time (using $\mathcal{O}(n)$ bits of space), we can get SucST supporting these operations in constant time.

Additionally, we are interested in answering **str_depth**(v) on ST; **str_depth**(v) returns the string depth of $v \in V$. As noted in [33], an RMQ data structure on LCP can be built in $\mathcal{O}(n)$ time and $n + o(n)$ bits of working space to support **str_depth** in constant time. Note that the operation **str_depth** becomes unavailable when SA is discarded.

Our algorithms in Sect. 3 and 4 make use of two arrays: A_1 of size $n \lg n$ bits, and a small helper array A_2 of size $\epsilon n \lg n$ bits. (We chose such generic names since the contents of these arrays will change several times during the LZ-computation.)

Node-Marking Vectors. In our algorithms, we sometimes deal with subsets V' of V . Pre-order numbers enumerating only the nodes in V' can naturally be used to map nodes in V' to the range $[1..|V'|]$. For this purpose, we use a **node-marking vector** $M_{V'}$, which is a bit vector of length $|V|$, such that $M_{V'}[v] = 1$ iff $v \in V'$ for any $1 \leq v \leq |V|$. We write $\rho_{V'}(v) := M_{V'}. \text{rank}_1(v)$ for any node $v \in V'$.

3 LZ77

The main idea is to perform leaf-to-top traversals accompanied by the marking of visited nodes. The marked nodes are indicated by a ‘1’ in a bit vector of size $|V|$. Starting from the situation where only the root is marked, in the j -th leaf-to-top traversal for any $1 \leq j \leq n$, we traverse ST from the leaf labeled with j towards the root, while marking visited nodes until we encounter an already marked node. Observe that right before the j -th leaf-to-top traversal, each string of $S_j(T)$ can be

obtained by following the path from the root to some marked node. Hence, the LZ77 factorization can be determined during these leaf-to-top traversals: If j is a factor position of a factor f , the last accessed node v during the j -th leaf-to-top traversal reveals f 's referred position. More precisely, v is either the root, or a node that was already marked in a former traversal. If v is the root, f is a free letter. Otherwise, we call v the *referred node* of f . Then, the factor length is $\text{str_depth}(v)$, and the referred position is the minimum leaf label in the subtree rooted at v (retrieved, e.g., by an RMQ on SA). Since every visited node will be marked, and a marked node will never be unmarked, the total number of $\text{parent}(\cdot)$ -operations is upper bounded by the number of nodes in ST, i.e., $\mathcal{O}(n)$.

3.1 Algorithm

We start with SA stored in $A_1[1..n]$, and some $\mathcal{O}(n)$ -bit DS to provide SucST, RMQs on SA, and RMQs on LCP. Note that the LZ77 computation via leaf-to-top traversals, as explained above, accesses ISA n times to fetch suffix leaves that are starting nodes of the traversals, and accesses SA $\mathcal{O}(z)$ times to compute the factor lengths and the referred positions. Then, if we have both SA and ISA, the LZ77 factorization can be easily done in $\mathcal{O}(n)$ time by the leaf-to-top traversals. However, allowing only $(1 + \epsilon)n \lg n + \mathcal{O}(n)$ bits for the entire working space, it is no longer possible to store both SA and ISA completely at the same time.

With Extra Output Space. Let us first consider the easier case where the result of the factorization can be output *outside* the working space. We can then use the array+inverse DS of Munro et al. [28, Sect. 3.1], which allows us to access inverse array's values in $\mathcal{O}(1/\epsilon)$ time by spending additional $\epsilon n \lg n$ bits (on top of the array's size). Since ISA is accessed more often than SA, we first convert SA on A_1 into ISA and then create its array+inverse DS so that accessing ISA and SA can be done in $\mathcal{O}(1)$ and $\mathcal{O}(1/\epsilon)$ time, respectively. Although it is not explicitly mentioned in [28], the DS can be constructed in $\mathcal{O}(n)$ time. Then, the leaf-to-top traversals can be smoothly conducted, leading to $\mathcal{O}(z/\epsilon + n) = \mathcal{O}(n)$ running time.

Although this is already an improvement over the currently best linear-time algorithm using $2n \lg n$ bits [16], doing so would prevent us from also storing the *output* of the LZ77 factorization in the working space. Solving this is exactly what is explained in the remainder of this section.

Outline. It is difficult to find space for writing the referred positions; the former algorithm already uses $(1 + \epsilon)n \lg n$ bits of working space for the array+inverse DS. Overwriting it would corrupt the DS and cause a problem when accessing SA or ISA. We evade this problem by performing several rounds of leaf-to-top traversals during which we build an array that registers every visit of a referred node. (A minor remark is that this approach does not even need RMQs on SA.)

Our algorithm is divided into three rounds of leaf-to-top traversals and a final matching phase, all of which will be discussed in detail in the following:

- First Round:** Construct a bit vector $B_f[1..n]$ marking all factor positions in T , and a bit vector $B_r[1..z]$ marking the referencing factors. Determine the set of referred nodes $V_r \subset V$, and mark them with a node-marking vector M_{V_r} .
- Second Round:** Construct a bit vector B_D counting (in unary) the number of *referred* nodes from V_r visited during each traversal.
- Third Round:** Construct an array D storing the pre-order numbers of all referred nodes visited during each traversal (as counted in the second round).

Matching: Convert the pre-order numbers in D to referred positions.

Fig. 2 visualizes the leaf-to-top traversals along with the created data structures B_D and D .

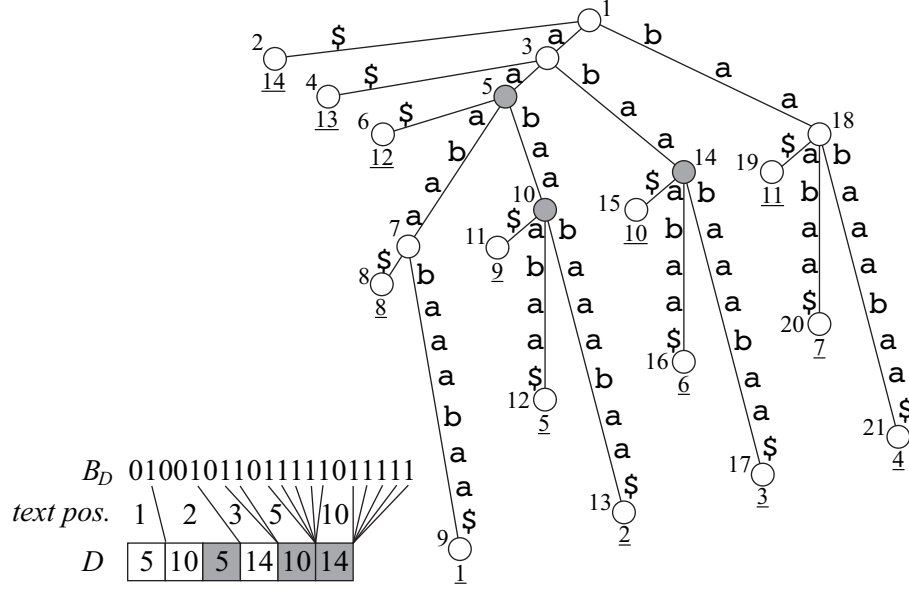


Fig. 2. The LZ77 factorization partitions $T = \text{aaabaabaaabaa}\$$ as $\text{a|aa|b|aabaa|abaa|}\$$. The shaded nodes are the referred nodes. Nodes 5, 10 and 14 are referred by f_2, f_4 and f_5 , respectively. During the leaf-to-top traversals: In the 1st traversal, node 5 is marked; In the 2nd traversal, node 10 is marked, and node 5 is referred to by factor f_2 with factor position 2; In the 3rd traversal, node 14 is marked; In the 5th traversal, node 10 is referred to by factor f_4 with factor position 5; In the 10th traversal, node 14 is referred to by factor f_5 with factor position 10; Therefore, $B_D = 010010110111101111$ and $D = [5, 10, 5, 14, 10, 14]$, where referred entries are depicted by shaded entries.

Details. In the **first round**, we compute the factor lengths as before by leaf-to-top traversals, which are used to construct B_f . Since the set of referred nodes can be identified during the leaf-to-top traversals, M_{V_r} can be easily constructed. We also compute B_r by setting $B_r[x] \leftarrow 1$ for every referencing factor f_x with $1 \leq x \leq z$. For the rest of the algorithm, the information of SA is not needed any longer.

We now aim at generating the array D storing a sequence of pre-order numbers of referred nodes, which will finally enable us to determine the referred positions of each referencing factor. D is formally defined as a sequence obtained by outputting the pre-orders of referred nodes whenever they are marked or referred to during the leaf-to-top traversals. Hence, each referred node appears in D for the first time when it is marked, and after that it occurs whenever it is the last accessed node of the j -th traversal, where $1 \leq j \leq n$ coincides with a factor position. To see how D will be useful for obtaining the referred positions, consider a node $v \in V$ that was marked during the k -th traversal. If we stumble upon v during the j -th traversal (for any factor position $j > k$) we know that k is the referred position for the factor with factor position j (because v had not been marked before the k -th traversal).

Alas, just D alone does not tell us *which* referred nodes are found during *which* traversal. We want to partition D by the n text positions, s.t. we know the traversal numbers which the referred

nodes belong to. This is done by a bit vector B_D that stores a ‘1’ for each text position j , and intersperses these ‘1’s with ‘0’s counting the number of referred nodes written to D during the j -th traversal. The size of the j -th partition ($1 \leq j \leq n$) is determined by the number of referred nodes accessed during the j -th traversal. Hence the number of ‘0’s between the $(j-1)$ -th and j -th ‘1’ represents the number of entries in D for the j -th suffix. Formally, B_D is a bit vector such that $D[j_b..j_e]$ represents the sequence of referred nodes that are written to D during the j -th leaf-to-top traversal, where, for any $1 \leq j \leq n$, $j_b := B_D.\text{rank}_0(B_D.\text{select}_1(j-1)) + 1$ and $j_e := B_D.\text{rank}_0(B_D.\text{select}_1(j))$. Note that for each factor position j of a referencing factor f we encountered its referred node during the j -th traversal; this node is the last accessed node during that traversal, and was stored in $D[j_e]$, which we call the **referred entry** of f . Note that we do not create a rank_0 nor a select_1 DS on B_D because we will get by with sequential scans over B_D and D .

Finally, we show the actual computation of B_D and D . Unfortunately, the computation of D cannot be done in a single round of leaf-to-top traversals; overwriting A_1 naively with D would result in the loss of necessary information to access the suffix tree’s leaves. This is solved by performing *two* more rounds of leaf-to-top traversals, as already outlined above: In the **second round**, with the aid of M_{V_r} , B_D is generated by counting the number of referred nodes that are accessed during each leaf-to-top traversal. Next, according to B_D , we sparsify ISA by discarding values related to suffixes that will not contribute to the construction of D (i.e., those values i for which there is no ‘0’ between the $(i-1)$ -th and the i -th ‘1’ in B_D). We align the resulting sparse ISA to the right of A_1 . Afterwards, we overwrite A_1 with D from left to right in a **third round** using the sparse ISA. The fact that this is possible is proved by the following

Lemma 1. $|D| \leq n$.

Proof. First note that the size of D is $|V_r| + z_r$, where z_r is the number of referencing factors (number of ‘1’s in B_r). Hence, we need to prove that $|V_r| + z_r \leq n$. Let z_r^1 (resp. $z_r^{>1}$) denote the number of referencing factors of length 1 (resp. longer than 1), and let V_r^1 (resp. $V_r^{>1}$) denote the referred nodes whose string depth is 1 (resp. longer than 1). Also, z_f denotes the number of free letters. Clearly, $|V_r| = |V_r^1| + |V_r^{>1}|$, $z_r = z_r^1 + z_r^{>1}$, $|V_r^1| \leq z_f$, and $|V_r^{>1}| \leq z_r^{>1}$. Hence $|V_r| + z_r = |V_r^1| + |V_r^{>1}| + z_r^1 + z_r^{>1} \leq z_f + z_r^1 + 2z_r^{>1} \leq n$. The last inequality follows from the fact that the factors are counted disjointly by z_f , z_r^1 and $z_r^{>1}$, and the sum over the lengths of all factors is bounded by n , and every factor counted by $z_r^{>1}$ has length at least 2. \square

By Lemma 1, D fits in A_1 . Since each suffix having an entry in the sparse ISA has at least one entry in D , overwriting the remaining ISA values before using them will never happen.

Once we have D on A_1 , we start **matching** referencing factors with their referred positions. Recall that each referencing factor has one referred entry, and its referred position is obtained by matching the leftmost occurrence of its referred node in D .

Let us first consider the easy case with $|V_r| \leq \lfloor n\epsilon \rfloor$ such that all referred positions fit into A_2 (the helper array of size $\epsilon n \lg n$ bits). By B_D we know the leaf-to-top traversal number (i.e., the leaf’s label) during which we wrote $D[i]$ (for any $1 \leq i \leq |D|$). For $1 \leq m \leq |V_r|$, the zero-initialized $A_2[m]$ will be used to store the smallest suffix number at which we found the m -th referred node (i.e., the m -th node of V_r identified by pre-order).

Let us consider that we have set $A_2[m] = k$, i.e., the m -th referred node was discovered for the first time by the traversal of the suffix leaf labeled with k .

Whenever we read the referred entry $D[i]$ of a factor f with factor position larger than k and $\rho_{V_r}(D[i]) = m$, we know by $A_2[m] = k$ that the referred position of f is k . Both the filling of A_2 and the matching are done in one single, sequential scan over D (stored in A_1) from left to right: While tracking the suffix leaf's label with a counter $1 \leq k \leq n$, we look at $t := \rho_{V_r}(D[i])$ and $A_2[t]$ for each array position $1 \leq i \leq |D|$: if $A_2[t] = 0$, we set $A_2[t] \leftarrow k$. Otherwise, $D[i]$ is a referred entry of the factor f with factor position k , for which $A_2[t]$ stores its referred position. We set $A_1[i] \leftarrow A_2[t]$. By doing this, we overwrite the referred entry of every referencing factor f in D with the referred position of f .

If $|V_r| > \lfloor n\epsilon \rfloor$, we run the same scan multiple times, i.e., we partition $\{1, \dots, |V_r|\}$ into $\lceil |V_r| / (n\epsilon) \rceil$ equi-distant intervals (pad the size of the last one) of size $\lfloor n\epsilon \rfloor$, and perform $\lceil |V_r| / (n\epsilon) \rceil$ scans. In order to skip the referred entries in D belonging to an already scanned part of V_r , we use a bit vector that marks exactly those positions. Since each scan takes $\mathcal{O}(n)$ time, the whole computation takes $\mathcal{O}(|V_r|/\epsilon) = \mathcal{O}(z/\epsilon)$ time.

Now we have the complete information of the factorization: The length of the factors can be obtained by a select-query on B_f , and A_1 contains the referred positions of all referencing factors. By a left shift we can restructure A_1 such that $A_1[x]$ tells us the referred position (if it exists, according to $B_r[x]$) for each factor $1 \leq x \leq z$. Hence, looking up a factor can be done in $\mathcal{O}(1)$ time.

3.2 Classic LZ77 factorization

During the leaf-to-top traversals in Section 3.1, we have to account for the fact that the length of each referencing factor has to be enlarged (due to the fresh character). It suffices to mark the factors in B_f appropriately to the possibly modified lengths (B_f is used to retrieve position and length of any factor); the new shape of B_f induces implicitly a modification of B_r and B_D . The fresh character that ends a referencing factor will never be considered to be a factor beginning. Finally, the fresh character of each referencing factor can be lookup up with B_f and T . Lemma 1 still holds for this variant of the factorization; in fact, since $z_r^1 = 0$ and $V_r^1 = \emptyset$, the proof gets easier.

4 LZ78

Common implementations use a trie for storing the factors. In the beginning, the trie just consists of the root. For each newly generated factor we append a leaf to the trie. If the parent of this leaf is the root, the factor is a free letter, otherwise it references the factor that corresponds to the parent node. Hence, each node (except the root) represents a factor. We call this trie the **LZ78 trie**. Recall that all trie implementations have a (log-)logarithmic dependence on σ for top-down-traversals (see the Introduction); one of our tricks is using `level_anc` queries starting from the leaves in order to get rid of this dependence. For this task we need ISA to fetch the correct suffix leaf; hence, we first overwrite SA by its inverse.

4.1 Algorithm

Interestingly, the LZ78 trie is superimposed on the suffix trie of T [2, 30]. Thus, the LZ78 trie structure can be represented by ST, with an additional DS storing the number of LZ78 trie nodes that lie on each edge of ST. Each trie node v is called *explicit* iff it is not discarded during the compactification of the suffix trie towards ST; the other trie nodes are called *implicit*.

For every edge e of **ST** we use a counting variable $0 \leq n_e \leq |c(e)|$ that keeps track of how far e is explored. If $n_e = 0$, then the factorization has not (yet) explored this edge, whereas $n_e = |c(e)|$ tells us that we have already reached the ending node $v \in V$ of $e =: (u, v)$. We defer the question how the n_e - and $|c(e)|$ -values are stored in $\epsilon n \lg n$ bits to Sect. 4.2, as those technicalities might not be of interest to the general audience.

Because we want to have a representative node in **ST** for *every* LZ78-factor, we introduce the concept of witnesses: For any $1 \leq x \leq z$, the **witness** of f_x is the **ST** node that is either the explicit representation of f_x , or, if such an explicit representation does not exist, the ending node in **ST** of the edge on which f_x lies.

Our next task is therefore the creation of an array $W[1..z]$ s.t. $W[x]$ stores the pre-order number of f_x 's witness. With W it will be easy to find the referred index y of any referencing factor f_x . That is because f_y will either share the witness with f_x , or $W[y]$ is the parent node of $W[x]$. Storing W will be done by overwriting the first z positions of the array A_1 .

We start by computing $W[x]$ for all $1 \leq x \leq z$ in increasing order. Suppose that we have already processed $x - 1$ factors, and now want to determine the witness of f_x with factor position j . $\text{ISA}[j]$ tells us where to find the **ST** leaf labeled with j . Next, we traverse **ST** from the root towards this leaf (navigated by `level_anc` queries in deterministic constant time per edge) until we find the first edge e with $n_e < |c(e)|$, namely, e is the edge on which we would insert a new LZ78 trie leaf. It is obvious that the ending node of e is f_x 's witness, which we store in $W[x]$. We let the LZ78 trie grow by incrementing n_e . The length of f_x is easily computed by summing up the $|c(\cdot)|$ -values along the traversed path, plus n_e 's value. Having processed f_x with factor position $j \in [x..n]$, ISA 's values in $A_1[1..j]$ are not needed anymore. Thus, it is eligible to overwrite $A_1[x]$ by $W[x]$ for $1 \leq x \leq z$ while computing f_x . Finally, $A_1[1..z]$ stores W . Meanwhile, we have marked the factor positions in a bit vector $B_f[1..n]$.

For our running example, we conducted the traversals, and marked the witnesses and LZ78 trie nodes superimposed by **ST** in Fig. 3.

Matching the factors with their references can now be done in a top-down-manner by using W . Let us consider a referencing factor f_x with referred factor f_y . We have two cases: Whenever f_y is explicitly represented by a node v (i.e., by f_y 's witness), v is the parent of f_x 's witness. Otherwise, f_y has an implicit representation and hence has the same witness as f_x . Hence, if W stores at position x the *first* occurrence of $W[x]$ in W , f_y is determined by the largest position $y < x$ for which $W[y] = \text{parent}(v)$; otherwise ($W[x]$ is *not* the first occurrence of $W[x]$ in W), then the referred factor of f_x is determined by the largest $y < x$ with $W[x] = W[y]$.

Now we hold W in $A_1[1..z]$, leaving us $A_1[z + 1..n]$ as free working space that will be used to store a new array R , storing for each witness w the index of the most recently processed factor whose witness is w . However, reserving space in R for *every* witness would be too much (there are potentially z many of them); we will therefore have to restrict ourselves to a carefully chosen subset of witnesses. This is explained next.

First, let us consider a witness w that is witnessed by a single factor f_x whose LZ78 trie node is a leaf. Because no other factor will refer to f_x , we do not have to involve w in the matching. Therefore, we can neglect all such witnesses during the matching. The other witnesses (i.e., those being witnessed by at least one factor that is not an LZ78 trie leaf) are collected in a set V_Ξ and marked by a bit vector M_{V_Ξ} . $|V_\Xi|$ is at most the number z_i of internal nodes of the LZ78 trie, which is bounded by $n - z$, due to the following

Lemma 2. $z + z_i \leq n$.

4.2 Bookkeeping the LZ78 Trie Representation

Basically, we store both n_e and $|c(e)|$ for each edge e so as to represent the LZ78 trie construction in each step. A naive approach would spend $2 \lg(\max_{e \in E} |c(e)|)$ bits for every edge, i.e., $4n \lg n$ bits in the worst case. In order to reduce the space consumption to $\epsilon n \lg n + o(n)$ bits, we will exploit two facts: (1) the superimposition of the LZ78 trie on ST takes place only in the *upper* part of ST, and (2) most of the needed $|c(e)|$ - and n_e -values are actually small.

More precisely, we will introduce an upper bound for the n_e values, which shows that the necessary memory usage for managing the n_e and $|c(e)|$ values is, without a priori knowledge of the LZ78 trie's shape, actually very low.

Note that although we do not know the LZ78 trie's shape, we will reason about those nodes that might be created by the factorization. For a node $v \in V$, let $\text{height}(v)$ denote the height of v in the LZ78 trie if v is the explicit representation of an LZ78 trie node; otherwise we set $\text{height}(v) = 0$.

For any node $v \in V$, let $l(v)$ denote the number of descendant leaves of v . The following lemma gives us a clue on how to find an appropriate upper bound:

Lemma 3. *Let $u, v \in V$ with $e := (u, v) \in E$. Further assume that u is the explicit representation of an LZ78 trie node. Then $\text{height}(v)$ is upper bounded by $l(v) - |c(e)|$.*

Proof. Let π be a longest path from u to some descendant leaf of v , and $d := \text{height}(v) + |c(e)|$ (i.e., the number of LZ78 trie edges along π). By construction of the LZ78 trie, the ST node v must have at least d leaves, for otherwise the (explicit or implicit) LZ78 trie nodes on π will never get explored by the factorization. So $d \leq l(v)$, and the statement holds. \square

Further, let **root** denote the root node of the suffix *trie*. In particular, **root** is an explicit LZ78 trie node. Consider two arbitrary nodes $u, v \in V$ with $e := (u, v) \in E$. Obviously, the suffix *trie* node of v is deeper than the suffix *trie* node of u by $|c(e)|$. Putting this observation together with Lemma 3, we define $h : V \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_0$, which upper bounds $\text{height}(\cdot)$:

$$h(v) = \begin{cases} n & \text{if } v = \text{root}, \\ \max(0, \min(h(u), l(v)) - |c(e)|) & \text{if there is an } e := (u, v) \in E. \end{cases}$$

Since the number of LZ78 trie nodes on an edge below any $v \in V$ is a lower bound for $\text{height}(v)$, we conclude with the following lemma:

Lemma 4. *For any edge $e = (v, w) \in E$, $n_e \leq \min(|c(e)|, h(v))$.*

Let us remark that Lemma 4 does not yield a tight bound. For example, the height of the LZ78 trie is indeed bounded by $\sqrt{2n}$ (see, e.g., [2, Lemma 1]). But we do not use this property to keep the analysis simple.

Instead, we classify the edges $e \in E$ into two sets, depending on whether $n_e \leq \Delta := \lfloor n^{\epsilon/4} \rfloor$ holds for sure or not. By Lemma 4, this classification separates E into $E_{\leq \Delta} := \{(u, v) \in E : \min(|c((u, v))|, h(u)) \leq \Delta\}$ and $E_{> \Delta} := E \setminus E_{\leq \Delta}$. Since $2 \lg \Delta$ bits are enough for bookkeeping any edge $e \in E_{\leq \Delta}$, the space needed for these edges fits in $2|E_{\leq \Delta}| \lg \Delta \leq n \epsilon \lg n$ bits. Thus, our focus lies now on the edges in $E_{> \Delta}$; each of them costs us $2 \lg n$ bits. Fortunately, we will show that $|E_{> \Delta}|$ is so small that the space of $2|E_{> \Delta}| \lg n$ bits needed by these edges is in fact $o(n)$ bits.

We call any $e \in E_{> \Delta}$ a Δ -*edge* and its ending node a Δ -*node*. The set of all Δ -nodes is denoted by V_Δ . As a first task, let us estimate the number of Δ -edges on a path from a node

$v \in V_\Delta$ to any of its descendant leaves; because v is a Δ -node with $\text{height}(v) \leq h(v)$, this number is upper bounded by $\left\lfloor \frac{h(v)}{\Delta} \right\rfloor \leq \left\lfloor \frac{l(v)-\Delta}{\Delta} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{l(v)}{\Delta} \right\rfloor - 1$. For the purpose of analysis, we introduce $\hat{h} : (V_\Delta \cup \{\text{root}\}) \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_0$, which upper bounds the number of Δ -edges that occur on a path from a node to any of its descendant leaves:

$$\hat{h}(v) = \begin{cases} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{\Delta} \right\rfloor & \text{if } v = \text{root}, \\ \min \left(\hat{h}(\hat{p}(v)) - 1, \left\lfloor \frac{l(v)}{\Delta} \right\rfloor - 1 \right) & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

where $\hat{p} : V_\Delta \rightarrow (V_\Delta \cup \{\text{root}\})$ returns for a node v either its deepest ancestor that is a Δ -node, or the root if such an ancestor does not exist. Note that \hat{h} is non-negative by the definition of V_Δ .

For the actual analysis, $\alpha(v)$ shall count the number of Δ -edges in the subtree rooted at $v \in V_\Delta \cup \{\text{root}\}$.

Lemma 5. *For any node $v \in (V_\Delta \cup \{\text{root}\})$, $\alpha(v) \leq \frac{l(v)}{\Delta} \sum_{i=1}^{\hat{h}(v)} \frac{1}{i}$.*

Proof. We proceed by induction over the values of $\hat{h}(v)$ for every $v \in V_\Delta$. For $\hat{h}(v) = 0$ the subtree rooted at v has no Δ -edges; hence $\alpha(v) = 0$. If $\hat{h}(v) = 1$, any Δ -node w of the subtree rooted at v holds the property $\hat{h}(w) = 0$. Hence, none of those Δ -nodes are in ancestor-descendant relationship to each other. By the definition of Δ -nodes, for any Δ -node u , we have $0 \leq \left\lfloor \frac{l(u)}{\Delta} \right\rfloor - 1$, and hence, $\Delta \leq l(u)$. By $\Delta \alpha(v) \leq \sum_{u \in V_\Delta, \hat{p}(u)=v} l(u) \leq l(v)$ we get $\alpha(v) \leq \frac{l(v)}{\Delta}$.

For the induction step, let us assume that the induction hypothesis holds for every $u \in V_\Delta$ with $\hat{h}(u) < k$. Let us take a $v \in V_\Delta$ with $\hat{h}(v) = k$. Further, let $V_{k'} := \left\{ u \in V_\Delta : \hat{p}(u) = v \text{ and } \hat{h}(u) = k' \right\}$ for $0 \leq k' \leq k-1$ denote the set of Δ -nodes that have the same \hat{h} value and are descendants of v , without having a Δ -node as ancestor that is a descendant of v . These constraints ensure that there does not exist any $u \in \bigcup_{0 \leq k' \leq k-1} V_{k'} =: \mathcal{V}$ that is ancestor or descendant of some node of \mathcal{V} . Thus the sets of descendant leaves of the nodes of \mathcal{V} are disjoint. So it is eligible to denote by $L_{k'} := \sum_{u \in V_{k'}} l(u)$ the number of descendant leaves of all nodes of $V_{k'}$. It is easy to see that $\sum_{k'=0}^{k-1} L_{k'} \leq l(v)$. Now, by the hypothesis, and the fact that each $u \in \mathcal{V}$ is the highest Δ -node on every path from v to any leaf below u , we get

$$\alpha(v) \leq |V_0| + \sum_{k'=1}^{k-1} \left(\sum_{u \in V_{k'}} \frac{l(u)}{\Delta} \sum_{i=1}^{k'} \frac{1}{i} + |V_{k'}| \right) = |V_0| + \sum_{k'=1}^{k-1} \left(\frac{L_{k'}}{\Delta} \sum_{i=1}^{k'} \frac{1}{i} + |V_{k'}| \right).$$

By definition of $V_{k'}$ and \hat{h} , we have $\hat{h}(u) = k' \leq \left\lfloor \frac{l(u)}{\Delta} \right\rfloor - 1$ and hence $(k' + 1)\Delta \leq l(u)$ for any $u \in V_{k'}$. This gives us $\frac{L_{k'}}{(k'+1)\Delta} = \sum_{u \in V_{k'}} \frac{l(u)}{(k'+1)\Delta} \geq |V_{k'}|$. In sum, we get

$$\alpha(v) \leq \frac{L_0}{\Delta} + \sum_{k'=1}^{k-1} \frac{L_{k'}}{\Delta} \sum_{i=1}^{k'+1} \frac{1}{i} = \sum_{k'=0}^{k-1} \frac{L_{k'}}{\Delta} \sum_{i=1}^{k'+1} \frac{1}{i} \leq \frac{l(v)}{\Delta} \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{i}.$$

□

By Lemma 5, $|E_{>\Delta}| = \alpha(\text{root}) \leq \frac{n}{\Delta} \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{n}{\Delta}} \frac{1}{i}$. Since $\sum_{i=1}^{\frac{n}{\Delta}} \frac{1}{i} \leq 1 + \ln \frac{n}{\Delta}$, we have $\alpha(\text{root}) \leq \frac{n}{\Delta} + \frac{n}{\Delta} \ln \frac{n}{\Delta} = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{n}{\Delta} \lg \frac{n}{\Delta}\right) = \mathcal{O}(n \lg n / (n^{\epsilon/4}))$. We conclude that the space needed for $E_{>\Delta}$ is $2|E_{>\Delta}| \lg n = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{n \lg^2 n}{n^{\epsilon/4}}\right) = o(n)$ bits.

Finally, we explain how to implement the data structures for bookkeeping the LZ78 trie representation. By an additional node-marking vector M_{V_Δ} that marks the V_Δ -nodes, we divide the edges into $E_{\leq \Delta}$ and $E_{> \Delta}$. rank / select on M_{V_Δ} allows us to easily store, access and increment the n_e values for all edges in constant time. M_{V_Δ} can be computed in $\mathcal{O}(n)$ time when we have SA on A_1 : since `str_depth` allows us to compute every $|c(e)|$ value in constant time, we can traverse ST in a DFS manner while computing $h(v)$ for each node v , and hence, it is easy to judge whether the current edge belongs to $E_{> \Delta}$. In order to store the h values for all ancestors of the current node we use a stack. Observe that the h values on the stack are monotonically increasing; hence we can implement it using a DS with $\mathcal{O}(n)$ bits [8, Sect. 4.2].

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